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*The Best Use
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THE CHARITIES REVIEW

Volume IX

AUGUST, 1899

Number 6

It is a hopeful sign that men are beginning to speak of the responsibilities of great wealth. Mr. Andrew Carnegie has been quoted as saying recently, "The man who dies rich dies disgraced," a statement in need of qualification,—like most epigrams. Mr. Carnegie doubtless considers no man "rich" whose fortune is not numbered by seven figures, and the implication in his statement is not a plea for a death in a garret. The importance of the sentence lies in this, that it is a recorded acceptance by a man of enormous wealth of the responsibility which enormous wealth entails. Mr. Carnegie, it may be added, seeks a use of wealth which is beneficent in the literal sense of the word, although he goes far when he says that "\$950 of every \$1,000 given in charity would better be thrown into the sea." The extreme of caution in the exercise of charity is a relief, however, when instances of ill-advised giving are so frequently recurring. When will givers get rid of the fallacy that the endowment of alms-giving machines is true charity? A recent instance of such thoughtless charity is the will of a late resident in New Eng-

land, by the terms of which an estate is left in trust to provide fire, food, or medical attendance for the poor. An endowment for a similar purpose, although by a means so novel as to give the matter an especial interest, is the one which the people of Akkram, in Holland, will secure on the death of their former fellow townsman, Mr. F. H. Cooper, of the Siegel-Cooper company. Mr. Cooper has insured his life for \$200,000, which is to create a trust fund to provide, after his death, for the maintenance of dormitories and cottages which he proposes to erect during his life-time for the aged and feeble of Akkram. The clause "aged and feeble" saves this charity from actual condemnation, but the wisdom of it is doubtful, to say the least,—especially as American trustees are to have the care and responsibility of the collection and investment of this fund, and will disburse the income thereof through ministers of the Akkram churches and the burgomaster of the five villages in the county.

*Playgrounds
in Boston.*

Eighteen Boston school-yards are in use this summer as playgrounds for children, beside two which are given

over exclusively to boys. The establishment of playgrounds for boys only is an experiment, although for several years the school committee has granted to the Massachusetts emergency and hygiene association the use of certain schoolyards for children's playgrounds. Last summer the association at its own expense kept up twelve such playgrounds. The appropriation of the school committee for the current year allows \$3,000 for vacation playgrounds, and the committee voted to grant the use of such yards and basements as the emergency and relief society should think needful.

In Other Cities. The vacation-playground idea is gaining ground.

In a number of cities the tentative stage is past and the movement is being extended with considerable evidence of confidence in its results. Philadelphia has twenty-eight playgrounds, each under the management of a kindergarten visitor and regularly visited by a supervisor as well as by members of the civic club. It is hard to draw a definite line between vacation-playgrounds and vacation-schools, for their aims are so nearly the same that they seem insensibly to shade into each other. Moreover, in the vacation-schools the tendency is to emphasize more and more the idea of "play." There are now in operation in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, in greater New York, ten vacation-schools and playgrounds and twenty-one playgrounds. This, as noted in a recent

issue of the REVIEW, represents quite an extension.

A Boys' Municipality. The main difference between the Allendale community in Illinois and the George junior republic in New York is that the government of Allendale is municipal. The object of this farm is an endeavor to instil into delinquent boys a respect for municipal government, and it is claimed that results, so far as noted since the establishment of the community in 1894, tend to justify this aim. The founder, Mr. Edward L. Bradley, has always filled the office of mayor, but all the other municipal offices are open to the boys. Allendale is situated on Cedar lake, about five miles south of the Wisconsin line. Every citizen has opportunity to work, and wages run as high as eight dollars a week in Allendale currency. Board costs four dollars a week. Labor is not compulsory, but if a boy does not work he finds himself unable to pay his board, and is supported by the community as a pauper. The loss of caste which befalls the pauper apparently is much dreaded, for the social standard at Allendale seems to be a standard of work. Great care has been taken by the promoters of the farm to keep clear of an institutional atmosphere. Thus, while an Allendale association has been duly incorporated, and while the property is in the hands of a board of trustees, Mr. Bradley alone has anything to do with the practical control of the municipality. The citizens live in small cottages. No

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boy over twelve years old is admitted, but there is no definite age of dismissal. Those of the boys who develop an interest in farming are helped to situations compatible with this desire, but the majority of boys prefer to return to the city. Possibly the desire to live under the form of government with which their community life has made them familiar is partly responsible for the small proportion of those who come to prefer country life. But those who return to the city seem to carry with them a desire to live honestly and decently, and that they retain a sincere love for Allendale is evidenced by instances of graduates who devote parts of their salaries to the community or who have insured their lives in its favor.

Boston's Municipal Camp. The success of the Boston municipal camp for boys during its first season has led the authorities to provide enlarged facilities for this, its second, season. In place of the ten tents of last summer there are now sixteen, and the camp has been further enlarged to accommodate 150 boys each week for two months. During seven weeks of warm weather last summer 831 boys were given each the benefit of one week in the camp, with supervision, shelter, instruction, and food, at a total cost of \$1,521, or \$1.83 per head. The outlay on permanent equipment was \$977. This year a store-house is to be built, and there will be a library and reading-room, and indoor games to give amusement in wet weather. Appli-

cants are generally received from the schools, and must be recommended by teachers. The conditions of acceptance are good moral character and circumstances which prevent the boy from securing an outing on his own account.

Appropriations in Pennsylvania.

The governor of Pennsylvania, in his attempt to reduce the appropriations of the last legislature, in order to bring the total within the available resources of the state treasury, has resorted to the doubtfully wise experiment of cutting off appropriations to educational and charitable purposes. He undoubtedly has the power to veto any single appropriation item in a bill passed by the legislature, and some of the bequests to charitable purposes were doubtless obtained largely on account of the "political pull" of their managers rather than on the merit of the work they conducted. Governor Stone has, however, followed in the footsteps of his predecessor, Governor Hastings, and has employed the questionable method of reducing the amounts of certain appropriations, insisting upon institutions taking a smaller sum under threat of a veto of the whole item unless the legally qualified officers of the institution concerned sign a document known as a waver, releasing all claim against the state for an amount equal to the difference between the appropriation granted by legislative enactment and the sum allowed by the governor's revised schedule. This curious procedure places the gover-

nor in the attitude of a legislator, and means that he takes upon himself, and therefore away from the legislature, the right to say what is wise legislation for the educational and charitable interests of the state. The care with which the governor has insisted on having the waivers from the institutions concerned would seem to indicate that he himself admits the illegality of his act. The institutions can hardly be blamed for apparently encouraging this pernicious system, because with them it is a case of necessity, and a small appropriation is better than none at all. It would also seem that the legislature is quite willing to throw upon the governor the responsibility for deciding the amounts of the charitable appropriations, inasmuch as it did not rebuke a similar action on the part of Governor Hastings. The courts have not passed on the legality of the waivers, and their binding effect should be tested in court.

Tenement-House Reform.—A distinct step in advance in tenement-house reform has been made in a recent report of the tenement-house committee of the charity organization society, in which are proposed to the local authorities in New York a series of tenement-house ordinances which shall be supplemental to the existing provisions of the tenement-house laws as embodied in the greater New York charter. The committee points out that the tenement houses erected under the present laws in New York city are in many respects much worse than the

old tenements erected thirty years ago, and that, although nearly all of the respectable workingmen and mechanics of the city live in such buildings, dangerous and unsanitary conditions are allowed to prevail and are steadily growing worse from year to year. The committee recommends that the present evils of the narrow, dark, damp, unventilated air-shafts be remedied by providing that in the future no air-shaft shall be less than six feet wide in any part, nor shall have an area less than one hundred and fifty square feet; that the height of non-fireproof tenements shall be limited to six stories; that every living-room shall contain at least 600 cubic feet of air space; that every new tenement hereafter erected shall have at least one bathroom, containing either shower or tub for the use of the tenants; that where new tenements are over four stories high the floor above the lowest story shall be fireproof; that the walls of all tenement houses shall be carried up three feet six inches above the roof on all sides, so that the roof may be used as a playground; that in existing tenements dark halls shall be made light by removing the wooden panels from the doors and substituting glass panels.

In the discussion which these proposals has created, the fact has been brought out, and greatly emphasized, that the cause of the present tenement-house evils in New York is largely to be found in the original plan of sub-dividing the city's streets and laying them out in blocks 200 feet deep by 400 feet long, thus

necessitating lots deep; the difficult this size shall be specially suitable for the has been root of in districts into small concentrations central these changes tenement accomplished to find of the especially, minimum providing structures the light

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necessitating the division of blocks into lots 25 feet wide by 100 feet deep; the result being that it is very difficult properly to plan on a lot of this size a tenement house which shall be both sanitary and commercially successful, owing to the great value of ground in New York city. For the first time public attention has been called to the fact that the root of the tenement-house evil lies in distributing the light and air space into small, narrow shafts, instead of concentrating it properly in a large central court. It is expected that, if these ordinances are adopted by the local authorities, a distinct change in the method of planning tenement houses will be accomplished. It is especially gratifying to find an almost universal approval of the committee's recommendations, especially of the most important ones, viz., those relating to the minimum width of air-shaft, the providing of bathing facilities, the construction of roof playgrounds, and the lighting of dark halls.

The Cost of Living.

Not long ago we asked a number of charity and social workers the question, What is the smallest weekly income upon which a family of five (father, mother, and three small children) will live in a large city like New York? The object was not to discover the theoretical possibilities of economy, but to get at the facts of actual experience. The income quoted in answering the question should be such as will enable the family to live without absolute want,

and in this connection it should be remembered that, like poverty, want is a relative term.

Dr. Annie S. Daniel, of New York, writes that her investigations show that the income required by a family varies more with nationality than with personal habits. An Italian family will pay rent and eat such food as it can get for ten cents a day. Communism helps in this. The rent will amount to \$2 per month, and the total income to \$3. Such a family will have meat once in two or three weeks, but bread, coffee, and macaroni are the chief articles of diet. Clothing is a small item. Frequently the only outer garment in the possession of a community of two or three Italian families is one shawl. The Hebrews require a larger income, but Hebrew women have told Dr. Daniel that they can board a man for \$3 per month and make money. The Irish, as far as her experience goes, require larger income than any other nationality. One hesitates to say that the Italian family spoken of above is in a condition of absolute want, so long as it subsists without charitable relief and performs its traditional functions, but such an income would mean starvation to families of a less economical nationality. In general, Dr. Daniel finds (in variation to Engel's tables, according to which sixty-two per cent goes for subsistence, sixteen per cent for clothing, twelve per cent for lodging, five per cent for heat and light, and the remainder for education, care of health, etc.),

that one-fourth of the entire income is expended for rent, one-fourth for food, and the rest for fuel, lighting, and insurance money among the more thrifty. The Irish and Germans invariably count the insurance money as a necessary part of the total outlay. She concludes that for a family of five to live decently and pay all expenses (including such incidentals as sickness or entertainments), an income of at least \$10 per week is necessary. This means a monthly rent of \$10 for three or four rooms. Insurance money would amount to five cents a week for each child over one year old, and ten cents for the man and his wife,—a weekly total of thirty-five cents. Among the very poor no money is paid for fuel, for the children pick coke, or, as on the east side in New York, gather the waste from the saw mills. Of clothing, shoes are the greatest expense. The average family saves first of all for rent, and before actual destitution comes, is in debt all over and has pawned every possession worth pawning. A family is not absolutely destitute, she says, until it is thrown into the street, and before this happens, during its gradual decline, it probably has been helped by friends and neighbors. It is difficult to find how people live on \$3 per week, for generally no account is kept, and the only definite expense is the rent.

It is often urged that the difference between what might be done and what is done on a small income is due in large part to extravagance.

It is interesting to quote on this point Miss Sarah F. Burrows, of the New York charity organization society. She writes:

The extravagance of which our poor can be accused arises wholly from their poverty: lack of means to provide in large quantities and to preserve provisions properly from day to day; the necessity of buying poorly made and badly fitting garments, because of the impossibility of house-wives owning sewing-machines or having at any one time money enough to pay for good material.

Miss Burrows cites two families living on small incomes who are able to live without outside assistance only during the continuance of precarious employments. Her letter seems to imply that the line between actual want and a poor sufficiency is too vague to be noted definitely. Differences in the conditions required for existence by different families make the average necessary income hard to ascertain.

Perhaps the most interesting detailed estimate of the expenses of a poor family of five members is the following, furnished us by Mr. Meyer Schoenfeld, a prominent leader of east-side wage-earners in New York.

COST OF LIVING, FAMILY OF AN EAST-SIDE TAILOR (MAN, WIFE, AND THREE SMALL CHILDREN).

Food for one day,	
one loaf bread and six rolls.	\$0 10
beef, one and one-half pounds.....	15
fish.....	05
butter, one-half pound.....	07
vegetables.....	10
milk, two quarts.....	12
flour.....	05
beer.....	05
tobacco, beer and additional lunch in the shop.....	12
total (no allowance for coffee and sugar).....	81

Total cost of Clothing for
suit.....
hat.....
two pairs two shirts
underwear
and wine
six pairs
four collars
two jumpers

total.....
Clothing for
children.....
Lodge, giving
the life of
\$5 sick benefit
Rent.....
Gas or oil.....
Coal.....
Shaving.....
Excursions.....
Sickness, etc.

Total exp.....

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Total cost of food for the year.....	\$295 65
Clothing for man, suit.....	\$7 00
hat.....	1 50
two pairs of shoes.....	3 50
two shirts	1 50
underwear (same summer and winter).....	3 00
six pairs of socks.....	75
four collars and one tie.....	1 00
two jumpers.....	2 00
total.....	20 25
Clothing for woman and three children.....	30 00
Lodge, giving \$500 insurance on the life of both man and wife and \$5 sick benefit for thirteen weeks.	18 00
Rent.....	120 00
Gas or oil.....	17 50
Coal.....	11 00
Shaving.....	5 00
Excursions, entertainments.....	3 00
Sickness, etc.	15 00
Total expenditure for the year....	\$535 40

Mr. Schoenfeld maintains that the cost of food is much higher than the average as shown in Engel's tables, and higher than many of the estimates given in Professor Atwater's studies of the actual cost of living. It is also much higher than the estimated necessary cost as shown by either Professor Atwater or the estimate of the Pratt institute of Brooklyn. The cost of coal might be reduced to \$10, by purchasing in lots on the instalment plan. It is interesting to note that the amount estimated for lodge expenses is almost identical with the average payment of lodge members in all the fraternal societies of the United States, except that in this case the premium covers the lives of both man and wife. The beer and tobacco he does not regard as luxuries, but as actual necessities to the sweatshop workers, because of their insanitary environment and the exhausting nature of their work.

Reference has been made to Professor Atwater's estimates. In his "dietary studies in New York city," he says: "With good management in its purchase and preparation, food sufficient to meet the needs of a man at moderate work for a day can be obtained at a cost ranging from fifteen to twenty cents." Presumably a family of man, wife, and three small children would consume about the same quantity as three adult men. Following Engel's figures, the total weekly expenditure for such a family should average about \$5.75. Those figures stand for the minimum expenditure upon which the family can exist. The minimum expenditure upon which such families do exist seems to be nearer ten dollars.

In an article in the *Fort-nightly Review* on the legal advantages of being a drunkard, Mr. E. D. Daly takes the ground that hitherto far too great a proportion of blame for the evil of intemperance has been laid upon the publican. His argument is partly based upon the analogy that, as we do not excuse the thief who has yielded to the temptation of stealing because of his hunger, we should not excuse the man who yields to the desire to get drunk. The cruelties endured by children in the past, he says [pursuing another analogy], have been shocking, because the public indulged in weak sentiment against the punishing of parents. It took years of agitation to persuade people that cruel and neglectful parents had, for generations, been "let off" too much, and the agitation was opposed by all

sorts of platitudes about interference with parental authority, the difficulty of knowing where to draw the line, and the wisdom of relying on moral influences and improved conditions of life. Common sense at last prevailed and the children's charter [the writer of course is describing conditions in England] became law in 1894. The very same attitude of public thought, Mr. Daly claims, which for years thwarted efforts to restrain cruelty to children by punishing persons given to it may be observed in a startling degree in the drink question. No other delinquents enjoy to the same extent the advantage of being "let off." The very latest legislation, the inebriate's bill, contends Mr. Daly, practically creates a new haven of rest for delinquents who, "by impunity from restraining privileges in the earlier stages, have been legislatively encouraged to indulge in successive steps of wilful drunkenness at the cost of neighbors and kinsfolk and employers, which henceforth, when they fructify into disease, are to lead on to homes and comforts for prolonged periods, beyond the reach of sober working men and women." The writer suggests that common drunkards be loaded with disadvantages by giving increased power to punish existing offences, by providing punishment in cases where at present there is none, and by depriving drunkards of some privileges which sober men enjoy. He does not, however, lose sight of the potency of moral influences, which, in this connection, he likens to the artillery in warfare—the most formidable means, when available.

A sanatorium for ^{Canadian San-}atoriums for ^{for} sumptives has just been ^{Consumptives.} established at St. Agathe, about sixty miles north of Montreal,

in the Laurentian mountains, by the physicians of Montreal, as an experiment in the fresh-air treatment of tuberculosis. There are two other sanatoriums for consumptives in Canada, one not far from St. Agathe, and the other in the Muskoka country.

Home Work in Japan largely by

hand looms, which are usually operated in private houses. It is stated that these looms employ 890,000 women and 50,000 men. The convenience of having the loom at home is doubtless largely responsible for the delay in the introduction of power looms, although the cost of labor is about one to eight or ten in favor of the power looms.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Minnesota. The board of hospital

trustees is laying the foundation for the first and second state asylums for the chronic insane, these structures being located at Anoka and Hastings, respectively. Both institutions are to be constructed after the same general plan, with a central administration building and a wing on each side, and are to accommodate each about two hundred and fifty patients. Each has a tract of land approximating 640 acres, which should afford ample opportunities of desirable employment for the inmates. The establishment of these hospitals is said to be in the nature of a compromise, apparently a very satisfactory one, between the advocates of what is known as the "Wisconsin

system" hospital system was the close it appears yet settled for the care. The board prison at for machine of the two 9,000,000 fiscal year is said that the earning in excess of tenance, and the net profit the entire It would what the of cordage such a board which we on this su

At the of the Minnesota directions was issued probate memorial guardian according designed the asylum of it is under C. E. F. national The state condemn according by recent the board

system" and those of the fourth hospital system. As this compromise was decided upon almost at the close of the legislative session, it appears that Minnesota has not yet settled definitely upon her policy for the care of the chronic insane. The board of managers of the state prison at Stillwater has paid \$18,000 for machinery to increase the output of the twine plant from 6,000,000 to 9,000,000 pounds annually. For the fiscal year ending July 31, 1898, it is said that the management showed the earnings to be more than \$53,000 in excess of the total cost of maintenance, and it is now expected that the net profits will more than pay the entire cost of the institution. It would be interesting to learn what the "amalgamated association of cordage employés," if there be such a body, and the cordage trust, which we are told exists, have to say on this subject.

At the recent quarterly meeting of the Minnesota state board of corrections and charities a certificate was issued authorizing the judge of probate to appoint the Washburn memorial orphan asylum as absolute guardian of dependent minors, in accordance with recent legislation designed to broaden the scope of the asylum to conform to the intention of its founder. This institution is under the management of Capt. C. E. Faulkner, president of the national conference of charities. The state board also ordered the condemnation of seven lockups, in accordance with authority conferred by recent legislation, the mandate of the board being without appeal.

New York. The state board of charities held its regular quarterly meeting at the capitol at Albany on July 12, seven commissioners being present. The board instructed its committee on reformatories to act concurrently with the newly appointed board of managers of the house of refuge for women at Hudson in investigating the charges aimed at that institution and in securing the correction of any abuses found to exist there. The new board organized on the 14th inst., electing Professor Hubert E. Mills, of Vassar college, president; Fulton Paul, of Hudson, treasurer, and Mrs. Marcia Chace Powell, of Ghent, secretary. The following day the resignation of Mrs. Frances O. Abbott, the superintendent of the institution, was accepted to take effect August 1, and Mrs. Abbott was at once relieved from further duty. A resolution forbidding corporal punishment in any form was adopted for the future guidance of the employés of the institution. The local board having entered so promptly and earnestly upon its work, it is probable that the reorganization of the institution will be allowed to rest very largely in its own hands. While the duties are arduous, the members of the board seem competent to attend to them satisfactorily.

At its meeting the state board approved of the incorporation of the "woman's aid nursery of Brooklyn," the "little mother's aid association of New York," which has been some time pending, and the "Skene hospital for self-supporting women" in Brooklyn. It disap-

proved of the incorporation of the "Woodbine nursery of Brooklyn," it being considered merely a business experiment, and no necessity for its existence being shown. The board approved of plans for construction work at Craig colony, the state custodial asylum for feeble-minded women, the New York state soldiers' and sailors' home, New York state woman's relief corps home, the Rome state custodial asylum, and the Chemung county almshouse. The board's committee on almshouses presented a report showing the necessity for changes and improvements in many of the almshouses of the state, these defects having been revealed by the rigid system of inspection recently instituted by the board. The chief defects reported are lack of protection from fire, including in some cases a deficient water supply, insufficient bathing facilities, and in some cases a want of cleanliness in the institutions. The secretary of the board was requested to communicate the facts to the local authorities and to request that suitable remedies be provided as promptly as possible. Those who have been interested in Montgomery county's lack of proper system for caring for the dependent poor will be gratified to know that the board of supervisors has purchased an excellent farm upon which to locate the proposed new almshouse. This farm is near Speakers, on the line of the New York central railroad, and is not only so located as to admit of an excellent system of drainage, but has an abundant water supply derived

from an unfailing spring of pure water on the premises. This is said to be capable of supplying a six-inch stream at all times, and to be sufficient for a small sized village. The institution is to be built on the cottage plan. Those who labored to secure the change from the contract system are to be congratulated on the success of their efforts thus far, but it should be remembered that the battle is but half won. The next question will be the proper administration of the new almshouse, and it is to be hoped that politics will play but an inconsiderable part in this important question, and that the right people will be selected to conduct the work.

Ohio. The twenty-third annual report of the Ohio board of state charities is ready for presentation to the general assembly of the state. The report makes a number of suggestions to the assembly for the betterment of conditions among the dependent poor of the state, which, it is to be hoped, may be productive of good. Attention is called to the fact that poor children who are crippled or deformed are kept in either the county infirmaries or children's homes, where they can not have the special care and surgical treatment that their cases need in some instances and which might restore them to health. The suggestion is made that the state should furnish an institution for the care and treatment of these children. The board is severe in its condemnation of the management of the jails of the state,

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and declares that no improvement has been made in them since its last report was issued and attention called to their condition. The secretary of the board states in the report that Ohio is now supporting seventeen charitable and correctional institutions, which cost last year \$3,085,880.04. The daily average number of inmates was 15,517, and the average per capita cost, \$144.20.

The Ohio bulletin of charities and correction for the quarter ending March 31, and recently published, in an interesting number, containing instructive articles on "the rain and shower bath system," "defects of the poor law," "sewage disposal methods," and other topics.

PRISON NOTES.

Death of
Mrs. Johnson. The death of Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, superintendent

of the reformatory prison for women at Sherborn, Massachusetts, occurred in London on the 28th of June, the day after the presentation of her paper at the international council of women in London. Her life was remarkable, not so much because she demonstrated that a woman can be a successful prison warden, nor because the large business of the prison under her management was made to yield profitable returns to the state, nor yet because the model system of discipline which she developed for prisoners so often sent them back useful members of society. Any one of these would make a woman's life remarkable. The striking feature is that with these she kept from

first to last, through all her experiences with criminals and the courts and in the business of prison administration, a tender and gentle refinement that appealed to every person, cultivated or otherwise, who came into her presence. She never became case-hardened, never pessimistic, was never hopeless in the work of lifting the unfortunate. In early life, in the "early blessed days" when her husband and parents were living, she engaged in philanthropic work in Boston, notably with the sanitary commission during the civil war. The reformatory at Sherborn was created at her suggestion, and in 1884, after the institution had had four superintendents, the last of whom was Miss Clara Barton of the red cross, Mrs. Johnson herself, then a member of the prison commission of Massachusetts, was appointed superintendent, a position which she held until the end.

The influence which she exerted over the lives of unfortunate women appears to have depended upon two qualities—her passion for discipline, which she exercised over herself as over every one connected in any way with the institution, and beyond and above this an individual interest in each woman. Each was studied affectionately. The discipline of the institution was always administered with vigor, and in addition each woman was regarded of first importance. There was the tender sympathy of woman for woman which was never failing. Mrs. Johnson even dared, so perfect was the system, to take her prisoners, some

of whom bore life sentences for the worst crimes, beyond the lines of restraint, out of the front door, locked behind, to a flag raising or a barn party. She did not recommend others to undertake similar experiments; she knew that she could do it. Sometimes she could interest a prisoner, whose case appeared hopeless, in some horse or sheep, with the result gradually of softening the woman's nature, bringing her to realize proper human relationships. Mrs. Johnson's love for dumb animals and for flowers was very great; she made these serve her main purpose of changing the character of the women in her care, not in a sentimental way, but by the slow growth of character.

Mrs. Johnson was widely known and will continue to be known throughout enlightened countries as one who developed and established the model prison system for women, but to those who had the satisfaction of her acquaintance the splendid qualities of the woman outshone the abilities of the administrator.

PHILIP W. AYRES.

A Curious
Legal Omis-
sion.

According to a decision made by the supreme court several months ago, it is impossible to restore to the discharged inmates of Kansas reformatories the rights of citizenship. Until the matter was decided to the contrary by the supreme court the managers of the reformatory had acted on the theory that the reformatory inmate did not lose his civic rights as does the inmate of

the penitentiary. There is a law which empowers the governor to grant citizenship pardons to penitentiary convicts ten days before the expiration of their terms of imprisonment, but there is no law authorizing him to grant citizenship papers to discharged inmates of the reformatory. The assistant attorney-general of Kansas has given an opinion which states that, under existing laws, young men committed to Kansas reformatories can recover civic rights only through a direct pardon. This comes very close to placing a premium on a penitentiary sentence.

*The Release
of Insane
Criminals.*

The full bench of the supreme court of Massachusetts, in the case of a man who, sentenced to the penitentiary for manslaughter, had finished his sentence in the asylum for the criminal insane, recently expounded the law regarding the release of insane criminals. On the petition of the prisoner that he was entitled to release through the expiration of his sentence, the court held that, if a convict, adjudged insane and removed from prison to the asylum for the criminal insane, should recover before the expiration of his sentence, he should be returned to the prison whence he had been removed, in order to complete his sentence. If, however, the insane criminal did not recover before his sentence expired, he should remain in confinement at the asylum as an insane person, subject to discharge at any time, as in the case of other lunatics, when it appears that

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Prison Reform in Porto Rico. The conditions which our insular commission discovered in the prisons of Porto Rico have a strong flavor of the last century. In the San Juan prison were found sixty-four prisoners who had been detained for trial from four months to six years, some of them charged with theft of a few cents in silver. In twenty of these cases our inspector recommended immediate release, while in the more serious cases he urged speedy trial. In the jail at Ponce were 212 men, of whom only fifty-one had been tried. One man had been awaiting trial for six years and nine months. In the prison at Mayaguez were 183 prisoners, of whom 146 were still awaiting trial. At the instance of the commission General Henry took the matter up during his term as military governor, and, out of 222 prisoners in the jail at Agundilla, 200 were released at once. At Humacas sixty out of eighty prisoners were released. The reason for the releases at these towns was, either that there had never been any specific charge against the prisoners, or that the period of their incarceration had already exceeded any sentence that could legitimately be imposed upon them.

DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

Place One: Others Follow. An Indiana correspondent contributes the following interesting chapter from his experience:

The following is an extract from a letter received this morning: "I write to know whether you have a boy from nine to twelve years old for whom you want to find a home. There are several of the home boys in my neighborhood. Mr. McC— has one; Mrs. S— has one; Mr. G— has one; Mr. M— has another, and Mr. McK— has a boy and a girl."

The history of the placing of children in that township is interesting and instructive. Seven years ago this month I sent my first boy there, a boy who, when first received, was very hard to manage, and for some months or years seemed almost hopeless. Had he been sent to a home then there is little doubt that he would have been promptly returned. But he was retained in the home for four years, until there was marked improvement in his habits and character, and he had acquired a fair elementary education, and I had reason to believe that he would succeed if placed in a family adapted to him. Such a home was found, and he has remained there for seven years, giving excellent satisfaction. I see him nearly every summer, and he is now a young man.

This boy did so well that, three years later, a widow, who was a neighbor of the man who took him, thought that she also would like a little boy. I sent her a boy only eight years old, who had needed no reconstruction. She still has him, and says that she "would not take his weight in silver for him." Then, a year later, another near neighbor wanted a boy, and I sent him one twelve years old. This boy had also been hard to manage at first, and was consequently retained some years in the institution until there was marked improvement in his conduct. He still remains in the home where he was placed three years ago.

A year ago this man's married son took a thirteen-year-old boy, and within the past month another married son took this boy's twelve-year-old brother. About a year ago, also, another near neighbor took a thirteen-year-old boy, who had been a truant from the city schools, and whom his mother, a respectable woman, had not been able to control previous to his entering the institution. He was retained for several years before I ventured to send him out, but, so far, is doing well. Three miles from this neighborhood, a little girl was adopted a few years ago, who is greatly beloved by the people who have her, and I have several other applications for children from that town. In all, I have sent nine children there, only one of which did badly and was returned, a fourteen-year-old girl, who had already been placed in five families.

Had I first placed an undisciplined boy in that neighborhood, he would have been returned in a short time, and that would have ended the placing of children in that locality. I have tried it several times, and found such to be the result.

The moral of this is that, in placing children in a new locality, the best samples should be sent out first. Good goods will recommend themselves and bring fresh orders. After the reputation of one's children is established, he can, with greater safety, experiment with sending out more doubtful children. It is better to place a few children well than a large number in poor homes, or before they are fitted to go out with a reasonable prospect of success.

Foundlings of France. A series of articles by M. Henri Monod, director of the assistance publique, upon the treatment of "enfants assistés," or children of the rate,

runs through the numbers of the *Revue Philanthropique* from September, 1898, to April, 1899. There are about 130,000 of these wards of the state—foundlings, children "morally abandoned" by their parents, criminals, or simply destitute orphans—corresponding, in fact, to the inmates of our reformatories, industrial, and poor-law schools, and to the protégés of our boarding-out committees. They are under the care of the inspectors of the assistance publique, whose duty it is to make arrangements for their maintenance and up-bringing. Criminal and vicious cases are sent into institutions belonging to religious or charitable bodies, or are brought before the magistrates to be sentenced to detention. But two-thirds of the total number are boarded out among the peasantry of the rural communes all over France. The foster-parents are paid upon a scale gradually diminishing from the first to the thirteenth year of the child's age. Each department fixes its own scale, so that there is no uniformity. The payment in the Bouches-du-Rhône for a baby is eighteen francs a month, but only fifteen francs in the Hautes-Alpes; it is only three francs in both departments for a child of twelve. At thirteen the children are apprenticed, the inspector of the department keeping his eye on them until they attain the age of twenty-one and gain their liberty, visiting them from time to time, and removing any who are ill-treated into new homes. He has the official co-operation of the prefect,

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mayors, medical men, and (sometimes) of the curés of his department. Here, as in America, political considerations occasionally assert a baleful influence, for M. Monod observes: "Mayors and members of the councils general do not scruple to recommend to the inspectors, almost always in an electoral interest, persons as foster-parents who lack the necessary qualities. The more conscientious, however, indicate to the inspector, by a private mark, those certificates of good character which he is to take not too seriously."

In the last article of the series M. Monod sums up the results of the boarding-out systems as regards the children themselves. The proportion to a million births of infants who live to be twenty-one is, for all France, he states, 680, but he does not possess the information necessary to give the equivalent proportion of "enfants assistés." Of those who survive, the great proportion settle down in the communes in which they have been reared, marry, and bring up families of their own, "which," observes the writer, "is no small advantage in a country where the depopulation of the rural districts takes the proportions of a scourge." There are communes in which quite a considerable minority of the inhabitants consists of present and former wards of the state and their descendants. The children get more regular schooling than those of the peasantry because they are looked after by the inspectors. Of 2,315 boys and 1,820 girls who at-

tained their majority in 1893, 49 and 45 respectively were insane, incurable, or otherwise irresponsible, and 151 and 36 had disappeared. Of the remaining 3,854, the conduct of 85.53 per cent of the boys and 83.9 per cent of the girls is described as good, 10.82 and 11.79 per cent as passable, and 3.65 per cent and 4.34 per cent respectively as bad. Most of the good ones had put by money in the savings bank. Two-thirds of the boys were farm-hands, and one-tenth indoor servants. Only nineteen adopted naval or military service as a calling. Seven-eighths of the girls were farm or domestic servants. The proportion of lads found medically unfit for the conscription is, as might be expected, from hereditary disadvantages considerably higher than among the general population, being 14.13, as against 8.83 per cent. M. Monod concludes that the peasants, as a whole, do their duty by the children entrusted to them. He recommends that a uniform minimum rate of allowance be fixed for them; and also that the inspectors should be allowed the assistance of office-clerks, so that they may have more time to give to actual inspection.—*Charity Organisation Review*.

*Custody of
Children.*

In the June number of the REVIEW there was considered a recent decision of the court of appeals of the state of New York to the effect that the supreme court may order children, who have been committed to an institution by reason of the

intemperance, or neglect, of their parents, to be returned to their parents, if in the judgment of the court such course is for the best interests of the children. The decision was based on the statement that the supreme court possessed all the jurisdiction of the court of chancery in England at the time of our separation from the mother country. Mr. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, commented unfavorably upon the decision, and has taken pains to ascertain the present customs in England in this regard. In response to his inquiries, Mr. William Jallack, secretary of the Howard association, writes: "I know of no case in England in which, after forfeiture of parental rights over a child, such child has been restored to its parents by order of the court of chancery." Mr. A. J. S. Madison, secretary of the reformatory and refuge union, writes: "I can not remember any case in which a parent has been able to claim his child, after he has been committed to a reformatory or industrial school through the court of chancery." It would seem from these replies that whatever powers the court of chancery of England may have possessed a century ago, it does not now exercise a power which the New York supreme court has been declared by the highest authority in that state to possess.

Relief of Cuban Orphans. The red cross has established twelve orphanages in Cuba, all thronged with children who are, for the most part,

¹See Bibliography for August.

orphan *reconcentrados*. About 300 children are now under care in these institutions. The larger children are given small plots of land, and are provided with seeds and tools. An agricultural school for orphans between the ages of ten and fifteen is being established at Sancti Spiritus, and a college settlement is to be established at Remedios. The trustees of the Cuban orphan fund are calling attention to the urgent need in Cuba. Their estimate shows 50,000 children in want. In one small town where scarcely an adult remains, the older children care for the younger by work. Here it is proposed to gather 200 children into an asylum. The widespread want in Cuba does not seem to be fully appreciated in this country.

BOOK NOTES.

*Outline of Practical Sociology.*¹ This volume by Colonel Wright is an admirable beginning of the "American citizen series," edited by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart. Already in preparation are volumes on the "financial history of the United States," by Prof. D. R. Dewey; "history of political parties in the United States," by Prof. A. D. Morse; "political economy," by Professor Seligman; "American foreign policy," by Prof. J. B. Moore; "actual government as applied under American conditions," by the editor, Professor Hart. It is the purpose of this series to serve as handbooks. Ample bibliographical material is to be given, together with diagrams and outline

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charts. If Colonel Wright's volume may be taken as a sample, this portion of the undertaking will very greatly enhance the value for purposes of instruction and research.

The author divides his work into eight parts: the basis of practical sociology, units of social organism, questions of population, questions of the family, the labor system, social well-being, the defence of society and remedies. Under these headings most of the important practical issues which enter into sociological discussion are treated with the high competence and yet with the sympathy which characterizes all of Colonel Wright's work. The most valuable parts of the book are those in which the author brings to bear upon such questions as the effects of machinery, wages (nominal and real), and divorce, the long results of investigation in the bureau over which he has been so distinguished a chief.

If the "long-run point of view" is taken, it is difficult to answer the telling statements about wages, employment, and the results of new machinery applied to industry. The "long-run view" is the view of sci-

ence and apparently of nature herself. To keep the eye fixed upon the individual misfortune leads usually in economics, as in charity, to confusion. Yet in many of the topics here discussed the reader feels how great a need there is before us. The "short-run view" is also justified. The individual mishap, accident, the loss of employment, is so constant that it, too, must be generalized into a law, or the dream of justice is as wild a vision as ever. Issues like employers' liability and workmen's insurance are at bottom an attempt to deal justly with the individual misfortune from the general or social point of view, to the end that justice may be done. When the author points to "insecurity" as one of the gravest evils of the present system, the need of systematizing the "short-run" aspect seems to be admitted.

The whole drift of social legislation is indeed tending steadily, and, let us trust, hopefully, to this goal, of a society so organized that the unmerited misfortunes in industry may not go without such recompense as their nature makes possible.

JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

specialists in each division have followed each other so as to make a consecutive course. Visits to institutions have been arranged on the same plan, making a general scheme as follows:

First week, private charitable agencies. Addresses were given by Mr. Robert W. de Forest, president of the charity organization society, and by Mr. Edward T. Devine, general secretary. Visits were made to the several departments of that organization's work.

The methods of administering relief, Mrs. M. Fullerton of the association for improving the condition of the poor.

Co-operation of charities, Miss Mary E. Richmond, general secretary of the charity organization society of Baltimore.

Personal work, Miss Zilpha D. Smith, general secretary of the associated charities of Boston.

The united Hebrew charities, Dr. Lee K. Frankel, general manager.

The Brooklyn bureau of charities, Mr. William I. Nichols, general secretary.

Visits to industrial agencies, schemes for savings, and fresh-air homes of the several private societies in the city.

Second week, child saving. Addresses were given by Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore, and Mr. Hugh F. Fox, of Bayonne, upon the principles and methods of placing dependent children.

The history of child-saving institutions in New York state, Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the state charities aid association.

Fresh-air work in New York and vicinity, Mr. Richard Hayter, of the charity organization society.

The work of the little mothers' aid association for helping children to care for younger members of the

family, Mrs. J. H. Johnston, president.

The beginnings of the kitchen-garden movement, Miss Emily Huntington.

The children's aid society in New York, Mr. Moore Dupuy, superintendent of schools of the children's aid society.

The care of delinquent children as illustrated by the Lyman school for boys, Mrs. Glendower Evans, of Boston.

Institutional care of dependent children, Mr. Mornay Williams, president of the board of directors of the New York juvenile asylum.

The department of truancy in New York city, Mr. Clarence E. Meleney, associated superintendent of schools.

Visits were made to the institution of mercy, the house of refuge on Randalls island, the nursery and child's hospital, the city truant school, the Italian school of the children's aid society, the truant class of the thirty-second street school, the New York juvenile asylum, the mission of the immaculate under the care of Father Dougherty at Mount Loretto, Staten Island, and the foundling asylum. The visit to the Hebrew educational alliance showed the application of best approved methods in educating the children of the overcrowded foreign population. A very interesting fourth of July was spent with the boys at the Brace industrial farm at Kensico, under the care of the children's aid society.

Third week, the administration of public charities.

The New York department of charities, Mr. George Blair, superintendent of the outdoor poor for

the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx.

County poorhouses, Miss Mary V. Clark, of the state charities aid association.

The development of public relief in New York and the work of the state charities aid association, Mr. Homer Folks, secretary.

Visits were made to the several institutions on Randalls and Blackwells islands, including the alms-house and public hospitals, the infants' hospital, school for feeble-minded children, and asylum for idiotic children.

Fourth week, medical charities.

Hospitals and dispensaries, Dr. S. F. Hallock, of New York.

Municipal control of contagious diseases, Dr. William H. Park, of the laboratory of the health department.

The care of sick children among the poor, Dr. Henry D. Chapin, of New York.

Visits to St. Luke's and Bellevue hospitals, the babies' wards of the post-graduate hospital, and the Demilt dispensary.

Progress in the care of the insane, Mr. Frank B. Sanborn, of Concord, Massachusetts. A visit was made to the Manhattan state hospital for the insane, Wards island.

Fifth week, public activities affecting the poor.

The influence of public cleanliness upon morals, Mr. James B. Reynolds, head resident at the university settlement.

The influence of the municipal government upon the poor and the influence of the poor upon municipal government, Mr. Job Hedges.

The history of outdoor relief, Mr. Edward T. Devine.

Abolition of outdoor relief in Brooklyn, Mr. Darwin R. James.

Municipal activities affecting the poor, Professor John R. Commons.

Movements for social and industrial betterment, Dr. William H. Tolman, secretary of the league for social service.

In this week occurred also an address by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, president of the city and suburban homes company, upon the housing problem in New York city. Visits were made to vacation-schools, to some of the new public school buildings, the new park playgrounds and to the recreation piers; also to the several model tenements and to the Mills hotels.

Sixth week, prisons and prisoners.

The department of correction, Mr. N. O. Fanning, deputy commissioner. Discussion opened by Mr. William M. F. Round, of the New York prison association.

Conditions of reform in prisons, Mr. William J. Batt, chaplain of the Massachusetts reformatory, Concord Junction, Massachusetts.

Causes that produce crime among boys, Mr. David Willard, principal of the Tombs prison school.

Visits were made to the police stations, magistrates' courts, the penal institutions of the department of correction on Blackwells and Harts islands. The last were arranged through the kindness of Mr. N. O. Fanning. A visit was made also to Sing Sing prison, with explanations by the warden, Mr. Addison Johnson.

The course included the following addresses and visits not classified as above:

The league for social service, Dr. Josiah Strong, president.

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Mr. Harry White, secretary of the garment makers' union.

The work of friendly aid house, Mrs. Mary Kingsbury Simkhowitzch.

Visits were made to the following social settlements:

University settlement.

College settlement.

Hartley house, with an address by Miss Helen F. Greene, head resident.

East side house.

Friendly aid house.

Whittier house, Jersey city, with an address by Miss Cornelia F. Bradford, head resident.

Neighborhood house, Greenpoint, Brooklyn.

Seven members of the class found residence in the several settlements and the class thus became associated closely with the social movement as expressed through settlement life. The course closed with an address by Professor Samuel McCune Lindsay, of the university of Pennsylvania, upon the social debtor classes.

Reports by members of the class proved an interesting and valuable feature of the course. The subjects were as follows:

Recent immigration at the port of New York.

First instruction for immigrant children.

A study of improved tenements.

The abuses of medical charities.

A study of social life in the seventeenth ward.

The social philanthropic activities of churches in New York city.

A study of the department of charities.

Volunteer personal service among the poor in New York.

The commitment of dependent children.

Agencies for placing out children.

Industrial training of girls; conditions and needs in New York city.

A study of day nurseries.

Small parks and playgrounds in New York city.

A study of the economic status of waiters.

A study of sweat shops.

Some phases of criminal anthropology.

A study of co-operation among charitable institutions, as illustrated in the district below Canal street.

In order to foster the plan of this course, and to enlarge it as circumstances may warrant, the central council of the charity organization society in New York has appointed a standing committee. Its membership includes Mr. Robert W. de Forest, chairman; Professor Richmond Mayo-Smith, Dr. Silas F. Hallock, Dr. E. R. L. Gould, all of New York; Mrs. Glendower Evans, Boston; Professor Samuel McCune Lindsay, Philadelphia, and Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore. A meeting of this committee was held recently in New York, with Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Miss Mary E. Richmond, Mr. Homer Folks, Mr. Edward T. Devine, and Mr. Philip W. Ayres, at which it was determined to continue the summer course in 1900. Hitherto the work of the class has been wholly free, with no charge for tuition, the student entering the course on the basis of an employé of the charity organization society, the work in district offices being graded to his needs. Next year, however, a registration fee of \$10 will be received from each student. It is probable that the same relationship to the

district work of the charity organization society will be continued also. During the first session of the class in 1898, one scholarship was awarded yielding a sum sufficient to pay all expenses of the six weeks' course. Its holder was Mr. Martin Birnbaum, a graduate student of Columbia university. During the second session four similar scholarships were awarded. These were held by Miss Elsie A. Hasse of San Francisco; Miss Helen G. Fernald of Baltimore; Mr. Joseph R. Downey of Keokuk, Iowa and Mr. William B. Buck of New York city; each of the four having had at least one year's experience in practical philanthropic work before taking this course. In all five instances the scholarships have been awarded without solicitation.

The central council of the charity organization in New York approves the plan of scholarships in order to enable selected students to pursue certain studies into the conditions of modern life, and consents to act as trustee for any funds placed in its care for this purpose. The sum of \$500 will enable a student to pursue a special investigation into the con-

dition of the poor in several cities during the period of one year, and to make a detailed report for publication. The sum of \$75 enables a student to pursue the six weeks' summer course. Why may not the clubs of our different cities, women's clubs or otherwise, such as those in Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Buffalo, St. Paul, Memphis, or San Francisco, establish each a fellowship fund, enabling a student each year to study social conditions elsewhere for a period of a year, returning to more practical endeavor in his own city. Fifteen thousand dollars would yield an annual sum sufficient for a student's living and traveling expenses. Similar scholarships are established for theoretical study in the universities; why not for practical study of actual life in our great cities which are vital laboratories. There are those who believe that the time is ripe for a school of philanthropy, with a carefully chosen curriculum. Like the plan for the united charities building in New York city, before Mr. John S. Kennedy made it a useful fact, this plan awaits endowment.

PROGRESS IN THE CARE OF THE INSANE.¹

BY F. B. SANBORN.

In the days of primitive ignorance all insanity was regarded as similar, if not identical. The ruder distinctions were made between mania and the extreme of melancholia, and some difference in treatment resulted, but it was generally thought that patients went through the same stages, and that their disease would yield, if at all, to similar treatment. A favorite theory being that madness was demoniac possession, the physicians, as well as the priests, resorted to prayers and exorcisms, reinforced by physical tortures of one kind or another; miracles also had their place in this treatment, and one great and valuable asylum for the chronic insane (at Gheel, near Antwerp, in Belgium) owes its origin to a belief in the efficacy of prayer and the bones of a mythical saint, Dymphna by name, to restore the insane to reason. The legend is well known, but its historic foundation is of the slightest; a faith like that of the present followers of Mrs. Eddy is required to accept the story of this Irish princess fleeing from a diabolical father, who slays her, and thus fits her for the healing mission which her relics have since undertaken. But of the gradual results of this credulous belief there can be no doubt; a whole community grew

up at Gheel with some knowledge, though imperfect enough, of the habits and requirements of the chronic insane, and they were probably better treated in that peasant community than by the sage physicians of courts and castles, in the Middle Ages.

This middle-age theory of demoniac possession had been handed down from the earliest recorded times. It appears in the papyri of ancient Egypt, in the clay tablets of Assyria and Babylon, and in the books of Hebrew and Greek history and poetry. "In Assyria," says Rawlinson, "insanity is supposed to have been caused by malignant spirits, and the directions for treatment are for the most part magical." David could charm away Saul's evil spirit by music, but the fabulous Nebuchadnezzar of the book of Daniel could only be cured of his peculiar paranoia by the lapse of time. Hercules, equally fabulous, suffered from epilepsy by the wrath of a goddess, and Ajax in Sophocles, driven wild by Pallas, kills oxen and finally himself. So, too, with the maniac Cambyses—according to the Egyptians, he was driven mad by their gods for his sacrilege towards the calf Apis. In recognition of this supernatural origin of insanity, epilepsy was called "the

¹Read before the philanthropic training class of the charity organization society of New York, July, 1899.

sacred disease," and treated by incantations and religious rites until a great physician, Hippocrates, appeared and exposed the folly of this ancient theory. But the treatment prescribed by him has little merit. Celsus and Cælius Aurelianus, among the Romans, had more advanced notions, and the latter, who may have been contemporary with the more famous Galen, appears as the most enlightened in his treatment of insanity, among the physicians and priests of forty centuries. He anticipated many of the improvements made by Pinel, Tuke, and their successors since 1793, and was wiser than Dr. Rush, or any of our American alienists before 1840. He opposed bleeding, chaining, flogging, and the use of terror and starvation as sedatives. His patients were to be placed in rooms light and warm; their beds were to be fastened down, and soft to the body; if they were sleepless, he had them carried about in litters. Riding, walking, sailing, farming, and theatrical amusements were recommended; his instructions to attendants are almost modern in their wisdom; he would not reduce the patient's strength by hellebore and aloes (ancient specifics), but would soothe and invigorate by alternate emollient and astringent applications. It is sad to think how far the Christians diverged for fifteen centuries from the practice of this gentle and wise pagan, until the attendants of George III blistered his royal legs, applied the strait waistcoat, forced him to take violent exercise, and occasionally knocked him down.

Commenting upon the fact that the court physicians of King George, little more than one hundred years ago, were no wiser or more humane than the charlatan Willis, Dr. Tuke observes "that the disgraceful neglect of the study of mental disorders left the English medical faculty in a condition of ignorance which rendered them unable to take the lead in the enlightened treatment of the insane." These vigorous words might be used of almost any country besides Great Britain, so little did the doctors for 1,500 years do to classify the mentally defective or estranged, or to improve their treatment. With the opening of the nineteenth century a change for the better occurred, but the progress made was dishearteningly slow.

None of the alienists had comprehended the statistical, economic, or even the sanitary relations of the public care of the insane. It was still a new matter; experience was wanting. Enumeration, even practical definition of the insane, was lacking; and while their number was much underrated, the likelihood of recovery was extremely overrated. The asylums were few and small, received but a portion of the insane, and had no means of determining the exact physical condition of the patients they treated. The microscope had hardly begun to do its work in revolutionizing medicine. The localization of function in the brain was in its rudiments, and was obscured by the charlatany of phrenology. The classification of insanity by its external manifestations was very little advanced, and had to be the study of each alienist in his own narrow field of observation. They experimented with medical

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¹ Memoirs

and moral treatment, and, like Dr. Rush, they formed singular notions of what treatment was applicable to the mass of the insane. Unfortunately, like medical men in all ages, with exception of a few physicians of genius, they took guesses and traditions for fact, in too many matters, and were unreasonably sanguine of good results from specifics, or hastily formed systems of treatment.¹

This criticism relates to the years before our civil war, and has been only partially true since then. The necessity of providing for the constantly and swiftly increasing mass of the insane, chiefly of the chronic class, led to more careful study of the subject in Europe and America; the results attained on both sides of the ocean became gradually better known to us and to the European experts; and what Dr. Tuke called "the disgraceful neglect of the study of mental disorders" can no longer be a reproach. Germany has taken the lead in this study, as Dr. Earle discovered fifty years ago, and has also, of late years, shown a greater practical skill and good sense in meeting the requirements of the insane than was formerly ascribed to that metaphysical people. The best establishment I have seen for the hospital and asylum care of patients is that Saxon *Irren-Anstalt*, of Alt Scherbitz, near Leipsic, which no American hospital has yet imitated; though we have copied much of the good and more of the evil features of European architecture and management during the past half-century.

That acute observer, Dr. Frederick Peterson, in his recent address before the Medico-Psychological Association in New York, said concerning this style of architecture:

I had frequently pondered over the origin of the prevailing styles of asylum architecture in this and other countries,—the character of which was once described by the late Dr. Godding as the cathedral style,—until an asylum superintendent enlightened me. He told me that in the ages when the insane were yet in jails and prisons, and when physicians first awoke to the necessity of a different method of treatment, the patients were in the beginning transferred to abandoned cloisters and monasteries, and that these structures consequently became the type upon which the new asylums built in later years were modeled in Great Britain and on the Continent. Modifications naturally came with time, but it is still easy to trace the evidence of such origin.

Without being literally true, so far as England and the United States are concerned, there is much truth in this theory.

And it illustrates well the irrational way in which progress has been made in the care of the insane, even after the impulse towards improvement had been given by Pinel, Tuke, and the more enlightened of the German alienists. Buildings of a traditional type having been provided, it was but natural that the treatment of the inmates should also be traditional. As has often been remarked, nothing is so uncommon as common sense; that would have taught physicians to ob-

¹ Memoirs of Pliny Earle, M.D., by F. B. Sanborn. Boston, Damrell & Upham, 1898.

serve the malady and treat it according to the indications. Instead of which, they framed a fantastic theory of the human body and the human soul, and then prescribed and tortured. Of all the maladies, insanity calls for the firmest hold on common sense,—because its manifestations are often strange and bewildering. Put down the anchor of good sense, then, to begin with,—and from that mooring proceed to investigate and experiment. But the actual procedure was generally the reverse of this; the medical profession drifted before the light breezes of wilful experiment, when not drawn into the strong current of traditional opinion, and their voyage was aimless and fruitless. So far as checking insanity was concerned,—that went on gaining ground, the more it was taken in hand by the doctors.

This was much the state of things when I first began seriously to study the insanity of Massachusetts, in 1864-65. That war had diminished the obvious insanity of the state; so many insane persons had gone into the army, or had been drawn into the ranks of labor, which was then seeking recruits quite as much as the armies were,—that the few hospitals we then had did not receive many patients until the war was over, in the summer of 1865. Consequently, many physicians thought that insanity had been checked; that it was hardly increasing at all, and might even be diminishing. My statistical returns (for it was a part of my official duty to make the returns of insanity)

soon showed how fast the malady was gaining ground in a community that had cherished the delusion that it was not advancing; and from 1866 to 1896, while the state population only doubled, the admissions of the insane to establishments more than trebled; and the average number maintained went up from 1,512 in 1866 to 6,042 in 1896,—nearly quadrupling. This average number last year was 6,706, and will this year exceed 7,000. As the statistics of all countries, when collected for a period of twenty years, show a similar increase of accumulated insanity,—sometimes larger than in Massachusetts, sometimes smaller,—but always steady,—the inference naturally would be that “occurring insanity” (that is, new cases) must also be increasing beyond the gain in population. Such I have in another place shown to be the fact in Massachusetts for twenty years past; and I must assume it to be so elsewhere,—for no other theory will account fully for the great accumulation of the insane everywhere.

Now real progress has almost everywhere been made in the care of the insane since 1865; why then has not this great evil been at least retarded in its advance? Probably it has been. Without the pains and skill of the medical men in 5,000 hospitals and asylums for the insane throughout the world,—there must be at least so many as that,—without the careful work of nurses and attendants, and the outlay of millions on millions of money,—the increase of chronic insanity would be much

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more than it is. But there have been and there are grave defects and omissions in the methods pursued even now, and in the best states and nations. Some of these I will point out,—using again the able and suggestive words of Dr. Peterson.

Our first defect in the United States, from a medical point of view, is the lack of medical instruction concerning insanity,—resulting, as it does and must, in widespread ignorance among physicians themselves of the symptoms and progress of the malady when it seizes one of their patients. On this point Dr. Peterson says:

Early diagnosis and speedy removal to a hospital for the insane are of paramount importance in nearly all acute cases; very few such can not be more successfully treated in suitable special hospitals than at home. Early diagnosis, if it means anything, means the diffusion of a practical knowledge of psychiatry among general practitioners. This can be attained only through psychiatric clinics in all of our larger cities, and especially in connection with medical schools. Clinical instruction in insanity is given, as yet, in but few of our medical colleges; and even where it now forms a part of the curriculum, it is given in a perfunctory way.

When last October, in my memoir of Dr. Earle, I made a remark similar to this, and contrasted with American tardiness and poverty in clinical instruction the early and thorough work done in Germany more than fifty years ago, a medical review thought me too severe on the omission of such a needful part of a young physician's education. But

Dr. Peterson quite confirms my statement; which, as containing an illustration from the remark of a famous and wise poet, Dr. Wendell Holmes, may here be cited in part. I then said:

A singular indifference, even aversion, exists still in some learned minds to the needful means for giving this indispensable instruction. In the year 1879 I had occasion to call on the late Dr. Holmes, to consult him about the feasibility of instructing his medical students, at the Harvard school in Boston, in mental maladies,—and particularly as to clinical lectures in some insane hospital in or near Boston. Dr. Holmes was genial and witty, as always,—agreed that instruction was much needed, and wished it might be given,—but had nothing special to suggest by which it could be bettered. When I suggested clinical lectures, he demurred; they might be indispensable, but think of the effect on the patients! and he quoted to me Martial's epigram:

Languebam: sed tu comitatus protinus ad
me
Venisti centum, Symmache, discipulis;
Centum me tetigere manus, Aquilone gelatae.
Non habui febrem, Symmache; nunc
habeo.

I ailed: 'twas naught; but, doctor, *you* came
at me,
A hundred students clattering in your
train;
A hundred hands, colder than ice, did pat
me.
I *had* no fever; now I feel its pain.

I consider Dr. Holmes a better poet and as great a wit as Martial; but in the matter of clinics both he and the Roman epigrammatist were wrong. Another way in which physicians can gain a practical knowledge of insanity is to establish small asylums, within easy reach of country practitioners as well as

those in cities. To herd the insane by thousands in monster asylums is wrong on other grounds; but also it deprives the local medical man of that opportunity to observe insanity which he ought to have. Dr. Peterson goes on to say,—agreeing in this suggestion with a more experienced expert, Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York :

Speedy removal to a special hospital necessitates ease of access and location in the centers of population. We should never dream of placing a general hospital for acute disorders in some remote region of the country. Why deal differently with acute disorders of the brain? Furthermore, one center of population in the state is no more entitled to benefit from the public treasury than another, so that the logical conclusion is that, within the limits of each city of 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, there should be created by the state a special hospital for the reception and treatment of acute cases of insanity. Possibly isolated pavilions in connection with general hospitals might suffice for the needs of smaller cities. Doubtless some emergency provision of ten days or more would be permitted before resorting to commitment by other legal process.

To this recommendation, where the only difficulty is to persuade the public authorities to build such small hospitals and keep them small,—I would add an observation ward or pavilion in every city for cases alleged or suspected to be insane, but which often turn out to be otherwise ill. It is odd that New York is still the only American city, so far as I hear, which maintains such a pavilion; they should be found everywhere in centers of population. This also, as

well as the small curative hospitals, would give physicians better opportunities to understand insanity from actual observation. An example of what he suggests is given by Dr. Peterson,—taken (of course) from Germany. He says:

There have been psychiatric clinics, or, as I call them, for want of a better term, "psychopathic hospitals," in German cities for many years; indeed, there is only one university town in Germany without one. They were in existence, in my student days, in Strasburg, Leipsic, and Vienna. Since then many others have been founded, and I have just read 120 pages on the newest of them, the *Psychiatrische Klinikat Giessen*. It was opened in February, 1896, in the town of Giessen, population about twenty-two thousand, near the other hospitals used for teaching purposes, and consists of ten cottages for 116 patients, in a beautiful garden. The central building contains pathological, chemical, microscopical, photographic, and psychophysical laboratories, besides a workshop, clinical auditorium, library, and dispensary for out-door patients. There are cottages for private cases, and for quiet, for suicidal, restless, and disturbed patients of each sex. It is probably the most complete hospital of its kind in existence at present.

That is to say, it is as perfect in its way as is the Alt Scherbitz asylum, in Saxony, which has eight times as many patients, and is in the plain country, near a village of Saxony—Schkeuditz by name—on a corner of the great battle-field of Leipsic. Few or none of such hospitals as these yet exist in America, most of our insane asylums being established for wide districts, sometimes for a whole state, and generally with a farm of

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good size connected. If situate in the country, these establishments come under the European designation of "colonies,"—that is, hospitals with farm lands annexed. Alt Scherbitz is such a "colony"; so is Gabersee, in upper Bavaria, which is modeled on the Saxon asylum; so, in name, is the colony of Gheel, in Belgium, because sending its patients to board in the country, in farmhouses and cottages. I have visited all three, and speak of them from actual observation. In America we give the name "colony" to an offshoot of a large asylum, in which farm labor is the chief employment of the patients. Dr. Peterson uses the term in the European sense, and would place most of the chronic insane in such rural institutions. He says:

The acute cases having been disposed of, there remain the gradually increasing aggregations of the chronic insane, for which much greater provision must be made. Here it is no longer a question of early diagnosis and speedy removal, but of humane care and economical administration. Healthful out-door physical employment has long been proved the best medicine for the chronic insane; hence they should be transferred from the hospitals to the country. They likewise should be located near large centers of population, both to admit expeditious transfer, and to grant patients and friends the boon of frequent visits. There will be some who for various illnesses or surgical conditions will have need of hospital treatment, so that a small general hospital will be a requisite. Others, again, will be more or less helpless, infirm, bed-ridden, excit-

able, unclean; for these a small infirmary will be necessary. The majority, however, will be able to occupy themselves a part or all of the time, and need, therefore, neither the solicitous care of the hospital nor the restraint of the infirmary. This is the class which has occupied the attention of asylum physicians for years past, the world over, as to the best methods of caring for them, whether by boarding out, by county asylums, or by some such scheme as that of Gheel. In the ideal institution, these working classes will reside in buildings adjacent to their labors; such as have to do with the live stock, dairy, etc., will reside in the farmstead group of buildings. The tillers of the soil will have their own cottages near the fields; the gardeners theirs, hard by the market, garden, and flower fields. The brick-makers and quarrymen will live in still different quarters; the artisans in others; and so on, until we have, not a palatial barrack for hundreds of patients of all classes, but a farming hamlet,—a village community, if you please,—in fact, the colony system in its best exemplification.

This is a pleasing picture, based to some extent on the actual condition of things at Alt Scherbitz, as I saw that colony on its farm of 750 acres, and with a public forest close by for the rambles of the patients. It can be made real in America almost anywhere, with this modification, however,—that the parts of this combined colony need not be on the same farm, or in the vicinity of the same town,—but may be separated by considerable distances, since the invention of the telephone has enabled one competent medical director to control the operations of many such villas and cottages, even if miles

apart. The ideal also needs to be more distinctly supplemented by the family care of the insane who are able to be lodged in private dwellings, as in Scotland and Belgium, and, to some extent, within the past fifteen years, in Germany, France, and Massachusetts. In Scotland this improved method provides for about one-fifth of all the insane who come under public supervision,—2,800 in a total of 15,000,—and not only gives the chronic insane more freedom and comfort, but avoids the necessity of building costly establishments for them every year or two, as is done in New York and most of the larger states of our country. In Belgium the proportion of the insane thus cared for in the two boarding-out colonies of Gheel and Lierneux is even larger than in Scotland, perhaps, and in France a successful beginning of this method has been making for five or six years past at Dun-sur-Auron, a quiet, rural region of inland France. In Massachusetts, where I introduced the Scotch system of family care in 1885 and carried it on for three years with marked success, it has been neglected by those who followed me in administration, but is now to be taken up more energetically by our new state board of insanity.

Wisconsin has the nearest approach to this hospital-and-colony system recommended by Dr. Peterson which any American state has yet adopted. Its hospitals are more exclusively for those patients who need medical treatment than any others, and its county asylums are

more nearly "colonies" in the European sense than are the asylums of any other state. Moreover, as often pointed out, Wisconsin provides for all its occurring and its chronic insanity year by year without overcrowding its wards or building those monstrous wens of asylums which are the fatal incumbrance to the new methods of treatment.

In one respect only have these monster asylums aided the progress of improvement; they have made it easier to train the nurses of the insane in good schools, because it was found impossible to have thorough discipline in these agglomerations of thousands, without a system of preparing and of weeding-out the originally unprepared candidates for the delicate and difficult duties of attendants on the insane. On this point Dr. Peterson does not speak quite so emphatically as could be wished. He says:

It is not strange that the vocation of attendant should present few charms, and that young men and women seeking a livelihood prefer to follow almost any other calling. It does not attract the best classes. At one time it was thought that increase of wages would improve the quality, but it is doubtful if such increase has worked any great change. The general establishment of training-schools in asylums has marked one phase of progress in recent years, and has raised the standard of efficiency in certain respects; but the training which would avail most,—training in ethics,—is still a problem awaiting solution.

Let me here make a suggestion, derived from what I have seen at

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the two larger Massachusetts hospitals, which have the best training-schools, and for the most years. Wherever the nurses thus trained are made to feel that a career in private nursing is thus opened to such as fulfill the ethical conditions and resist the temptations to indolence, deceit, and compromise with vice which beset the ordinary asylum attendant, the moral standard of attendants is gradually raised. So, too, with regard to the disciplinary strictness with which training-schools are conducted,—not as excuses for the faults of an asylum, but as one of the best means to correct those faults,—such strictness will inevitably secure good ethical results, and in itself improve the quality of those who apply for the places.

Coming now to the all-important points of prevention and cure, Dr. Peterson's remarks are not very encouraging for speedy success therein. He says:

We do not sufficiently study and expound the doctrines of heredity, the evils of intemperance, the care and education of eccentric and defective children, and the perils of marriage into neurotic families. . . . Not the least of the benefits of psychopathic clinics and hospitals will be the diffusion of a knowledge of insanity, its etiology and prevention, among physicians. And, as regards the cure of insanity, what have availed thus far the garnered facts of these recent years of patient investigation? Little, as yet, I fear. We have discovered a specific for one form of insanity,—that associated with myxedema.

Beyond that brilliant achievement we can boast of little gained in the way of actual remedies. Our palliative therapeutic methods are perhaps better than they were twenty years ago. We have gone apparently but a little step toward our ultimate goal,—the discovery of the causes and cure of insanity; yet the step appears little only in comparison with the distance yet to travel. Viewed by itself it is a wonderful stride.

All this is true; but it should also be said that a large part of the progress made has been the unlearning of theories and traditions resolutely advanced and obstinately clung to by physicians and experts themselves. In pride of opinion, or in a desire to continue in a desirable place, conferring more reputation than labor on the incumbent, estimable men have shut their eyes to the lessons of common experience and common sense; have resisted state inspection as if it were a noxious and contagious disease, and have belied the methods of innovators without taking the trouble to examine them. The stiffest opponents of progress in the care of the insane, in my experience, have been physicians appointed to care for them. In this they are no exception to the ordinary selfishness of human nature; but it is a little provoking to see them defend abuses in the sacred name of philanthropy,—just as the barbarism of war in the Philippines is defended by aggressive selfishness as the best means of beneficent assimilation.

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